Proactive Personality and Career Future: Testing a Conceptual Model and Exploring Potential Mediators and Moderators

Veena P. Prabhu
California State University Los Angeles

Proactive individuals actively create environmental change. In today's challenging times several factors can be a cause for concern for a proactive employee's career future. The purpose of the present study was two-fold: propose and test a conceptual model; test the mechanism by which extrinsic factors—managerial communication, job performance and intrinsic factors—job satisfaction intent to remain with the organization, affect the relationship between proactive personality and career future. The conceptual model exhibited a robust fit. Both managerial communication and intent to remain were strong predictors of career future. The results also supported the mediating framework of all the four factors. Implications for organizations and future research are discussed.

OVERVIEW OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY

Proactive behavior entails a dynamic approach toward work (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Parker, 2000) seeking to improvise the existing job along with developing personal prerequisites for furthering career success (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999) and organizational effectiveness (Bateman & Crant, 1999). The extant work on proactive behavior advocates the fact that the construct *proactive personality* explicitly encompasses the varied aspects of proactive behavior and initiative (Crant, 2000).

Bateman and Crant (1993) defined the construct *proactive personality* "as a dispositional construct that identifies differences among people in the extent to which they take action to influence their environment" (p. 103). They further developed the Proactive Personality Scale (PPS) to measure this construct and provided evidence for the scale's convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity with results from three studies. Since then, a number of studies have consistently demonstrated the validity of the proactive personality construct, as assessed by the PPS (e.g., Becherer & Maurer, 1999; Bateman & Crant, 1999, Crant, 1995, 1996; Crant & Bateman, 2000; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Parker & Sprigg, 1999).

Proactive personality is a unique disposition not captured by other typologies such as the five-factor model; Crant and Bateman (2000) found only moderate correlations with the five-factor model of personality. Furthermore, Crant (1995) found that proactive personality predicted sales performance above and beyond conscientiousness and extraversion. Additionally, Bateman and Crant (1993) showed that proactive personality is distinct from self-consciousness, need for achievement, need for dominance, and locus of control. All these studies provide further evidence for the discriminant validity of proactive personality.

Research in understanding this construct has been rapidly increasing. Its effects have been studied in varied fields such as career success (Erdogan & Bauer, 2005; Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999), job

performance through a social capital perspective (Thompson, 2005); transformational (Bateman & Crant, 1993) and charismatic leadership (Crant & Bateman, 2000); and job search success (Brown, Cober, Kane, Levy, & Shalhoop, 2006). Chan (2006) has explored the interactive effects of situational judgment effectiveness and proactive personality on work perceptions and outcomes. Parker and Sprigg (1999) found that proactive personality moderated the interactive effect of job autonomy and demands on employee strain. Their results were consistent with the premise that proactive employees take advantage of high job control to manage the demands they face more effectively, whereas passive employees do not take advantage of greater autonomy to this end.

Proactive Personality and Career Future

An idea that has recently gained much ground is the notion that work design does not simply allow employees to apply knowledge they possess, but it also promotes knowledge creation, or employee learning and development. Research suggests that individual characteristics may be the strongest predictors of engagement in development activity (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994). Evidence is accumulating for this more developmental perspective. Studies have shown a link between the greater use of personal initiative (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996) and the development of more proactive role orientations (Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997). This learning and developmental perspective is consistent with the German Action Theory (e.g. Hacker, Skell, & Straub, 1968) which is based on the ideology that work is action-oriented. More broadly, Action Theory is substantiated by the premise that: "the human is seen as an active rather than a passive being who changes the world through work actions…" (Frese & Zapf, 1994; p. 86).

People are not always passive recipients of environmental constraints on their behavior; rather, they can intentionally and directly change their current circumstances (e.g., Buss, 1987; Diener, Larsen, & Emmons, 1984). In dynamic circumstances which tend to be less well-defined, it is reasonable to assume that individuals might mold their work characteristics to fit their individual abilities or personalities. People with a proactive personality are relatively unconstrained by situational forces (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Readiness and determination to pursue a course of action are characteristic of proactive people which are also central to models of self-development (Antonacopoulou, 2000).

> The words of Bateman and Crant (1999) capture the essence of proactive personality. Proaction involves creating change, not merely anticipating it. It does not just involve the important attributes of flexibility and adaptability toward an uncertain future. To be proactive is to take the initiative in improving business. At the other extreme, behavior that is not proactive includes sitting back, letting others make things happen, and passively hoping that externally imposed change "works out okay." (p. 63)

Careers have changed dramatically with advances in technology (Coovert, 1995; Freeman, Soete, & Efendioglu, 1995; Howard, 1995; Van der Spiegel, 1995) and increased global competition (Rosenthal, 1995). Thus in today's borderless world characterized by technological advances wherein companies are competing for survival the assumption that an organization would provide lifetime employment has undoubtedly become a myth—'both parties know that the [employment] relationship is unlikely to last forever' (Cappelli, 1999, p. 3) which in turn demands that employees start charting and navigating their careers. Thus there is renewed interest in the idea of individuals taking responsibility for their career with researchers investigating the effect of various factors on careers (e.g., Sullivan, Carden, & Martin, 1998). In the present study we have concentrated on the construct of career future because in today's competitive environment individuals are bound to be concerned about their job security and whether they anticipate 'to climb the ladder' if they continue to work for the same organization. Although the extant literature lacks an appropriate definition for the construct of career future, in the present study it has been operationalized as an employee's belief about having prospects for career advancement in the present organization.

Conceptual Model of Proactive Personality and Career Future

　　Campbell (2000) pointed out the possibility of proactive persons receiving negative reactions from the organization, and raised an important question: "Are employees' enterprising qualities truly universally desirable, or do particular job and organizational circumstances make them relatively more or less valuable?" (p.57). Likewise, Frese and Fay (2001) proposed that there are limits to personal initiative, this is aptly termed by Campbell (2000) as the "initiative paradox"—where organizations on one hand encourage proactivity but fail to make room for the probable pitfalls such as misguided proaction (Bateman & Crant, 1999). For example, if proactive employees are not convinced that their career would prosper if they continued at the same organization, they would proactively search for new employers and avenues. Losing these employees would cost the organization time and money and this would be viewed unforgivably by management. It is, therefore, of vital importance to gain insight into understanding the mechanism by which proactive personality leads to career future. This entails investigating "how" or "why" (mediating effect) and "when" (moderating effect) does proactive personality lead to career future and other job outcomes (Crant, 2000; Erdogan & Bauer, 2005). Trying to understand these relationships and based on the extant literature of careers lead to the development of a conceptual model of proactive personality and career future which included not only direct effects but also certain potential mediating and moderating effects (See Figure 1).

FIGURE 1
PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE EFFECT OF PROACTIVE
PERSONALITY ON CAREER FUTURE
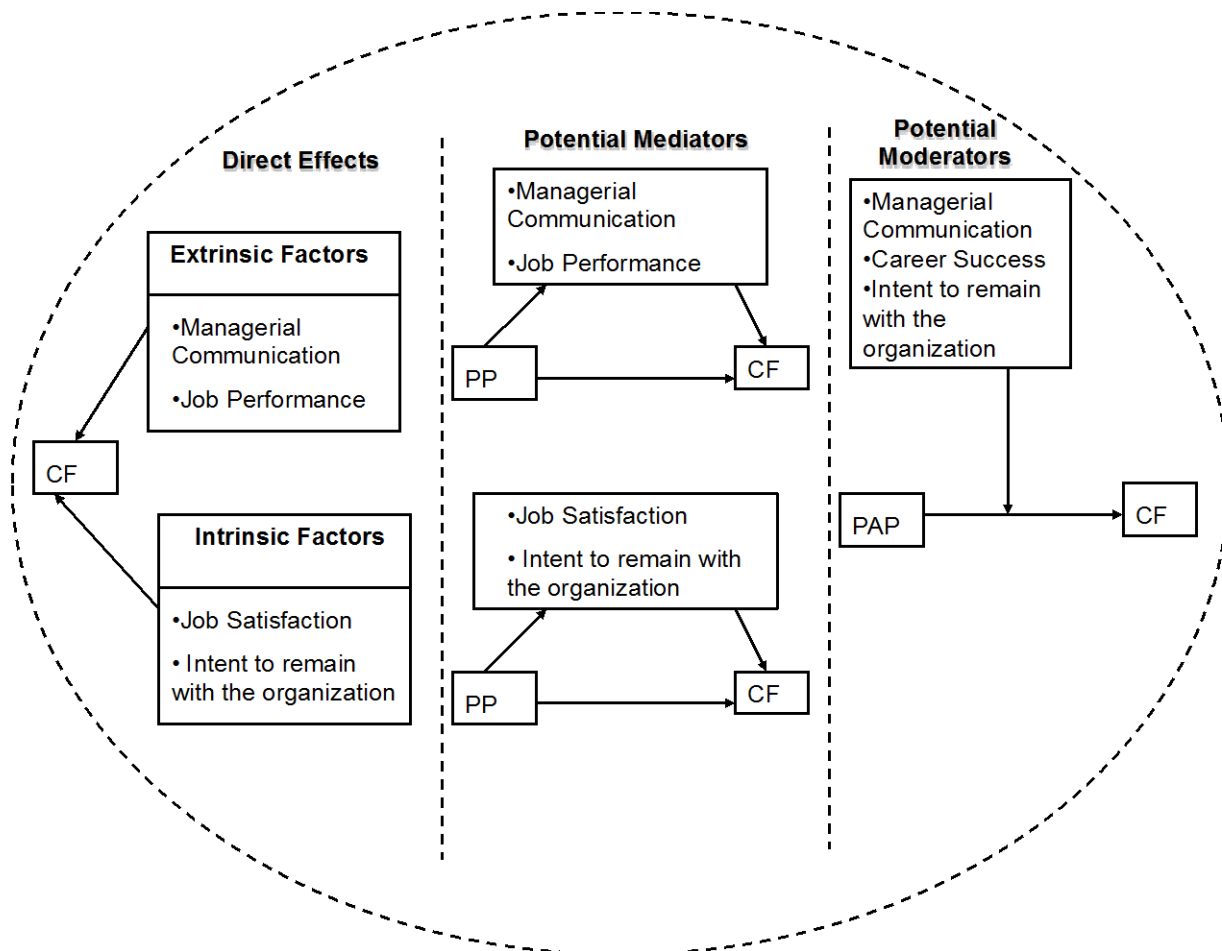
Potential Mediators and Moderators in the Relationship Between Proactive Personality and Career Future

Several authors have noted that understanding the strategies and behaviors applied by individuals to achieve career success is of vital importance (Bell & Staw, 1989; Judge & Bretz, 1994). In today's competitive world where there has been an increasing emphasis on protean careers, boundaryless careers, and career self-management (Hall, 1996a, 1996b; Jackson, 1996; King, 2004) proactive personality perfectly fits the bill. In an interesting study by Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer, (1999) proactive personality was associated with career success even after accounting for predictors, such as demographics, human capital, motivation, type of organization, and type of industry. In another longitudinal study they also found proactive personality to be positively related to career initiative, which consequently has a positive impact on career progression and career satisfaction (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001).

However, it is essential to note that research on proactive career behavior primarily focused on 'bounded careers, that is, single-employer careers with the prospect of stable employment' (Claes, & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998, p. 358). It would be appropriate to conclude that today's environment characterized by severe competition is the antonym of a stable environment. The recession has made the concept of job security obsolete and thus shifted the responsibility from employers to employees (Hall & Mirvis, 1995). In such a backdrop it would be logical to assume that employees, especially proactive employees, would remain with the organization only if they were convinced that they do have a career future in the organization. Thus in the present context it may be plausible that if the proactive employees are not convinced that they have career future they may not only be proactive in leaving the job but also searching new jobs. Thus it is of vital importance to gain insight into understanding as to *how* proactive personality affects career future.

Based on the extant literature four factors were chosen—two extrinsic (managerial communication and job performance) and two intrinsic factors (job satisfaction and intent to remain with the organization).

Dual Role of Managerial Communication and Intent to Remain with the Organization

With the advent of globalization, companies are constantly evolving and actively changing to not only survive but also thrive in this competitive environment. Managerial communication is a significant factor in employees' support for change. It has gained importance in recent years as researchers have found it to be predominantly vital in the entire organizational change process (Armenakis & Harris, 2002; Lewis, 1999). It is generally defined in terms of a process through which companies basically prepare employees for change by stating and clarifying issues related to the change (Lewis, 1999). Communication helps employees to gain a better understanding for the need for change, as well as to have some insights on the personal effects that may have been caused by the proposed change (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). The process perspective suggests that *when* employees receive adequate and suitable communication in a change context (i.e. appropriate justification for, and information about, the change and timely feedback), they will have more favorable attitudes toward the change which, in turn, provides them insights as to "how" and "when" their careers will be affected in the near future.

Another important factor to consider is an employee's intent to remain with the organization. Past research has found career commitment as an important individual factor of turnover (Bedeian, Kemery & Pizzolatto, 1991; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981). Furthermore studies provided support for a significant inverse relationship between career commitment and turnover (Bartol, 1979; Harrell, Chewning & Taylor, 1986).

Additionally past research has studied career related factors as a predictor of turnover intentions. However, once an employee has decided that he/she intends to remain with the company for varying reasons (personal or professional) intent to remain can also serve as a predictor. Jauch, Osborn and Terpening (1980) suggested several reasons for an employee's intent to remain (or conversely turnover intentions) with an organization. They pointed out that it is not only identification with the organization but it can also be identification with a specific career or a particular set of peers. Furthermore, earlier studies suggested employees could be committed to either organizational or career goals but not both.

Subsequently studies revealed commitment to neither, either, or both the career and the organization (Berger & Grimes, 1973). Additionally studies showed that individuals where able to achieve their needs by either merging their needs with organizational needs through participation (Latham & Yukl, 1975) and/or treat the organization as an instrument of his/her fulfillment (Rotondi, 1975). This suggests that intention to remain with an organization can be achieved due to several reasons and if so can then serve as a predictor of career future. For example if an employee intends to stay with the company due to peer loyalty or personal reasons such dual career couples etc s/he will find different ways to ensure a career future by using every opportunity the company provides.

Hence, in the present study we propose and test that intent to remain acts as a predictor of career future.

The moderation framework refers to a situation that includes three or more variables, such that, the presence of one of those variables changes the relationship between the other two, while in the mediation framework there is a causal process between all three variables. From the above discussion we anticipate that managerial communication and intent to remain with the organization will act as both a mediator and moderator.

> *Hypothesis 1: Managerial communication will mediate the relationship between proactive personality and career future.*
> *Hypothesis 2: Managerial communication will moderate the relationship between proactive personality and career future.*
> *Hypothesis 3: Intent to remain with the organization will mediate the relationship between proactive personality and career future.*
> *Hypothesis 4: Intent to remain with the organization will moderate the relationship between proactive personality and career future.*

Job Performance and Job Satisfaction

The range of job-related outcomes usually considered in work design research has been criticized as being too limited. However, traditional outcomes such as job satisfaction (intrinsic) and job performance (extrinsic) will certainly remain central to the agenda; hence these two outcomes were chosen in the present study. Mainly, proactive personality has been related to extrinsic job-related outcomes such as job performance (Crant, 1995; Thompson, 2005), extrinsic career success, or actual advancements in salary and position (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001).

Proactive personality has also been related to intrinsic career success, i.e. job and career satisfaction. Intrinsic success is also important because of its relation to life satisfaction (Lounsbury, Park, Sundstrom, Williamson, & Pemberton, 2004). In the present study job satisfaction was defined as an individual's global feeling about his or her job (Spector, 1997). Dispositional characteristics incline people to a certain level of satisfaction (see Bowling, Beehr, Wagner, & Libkuman, 2005).

Additionally several studies have provided evidence of the importance of job satisfaction in careers. For example the Career Attitudes and Strategies Inventory (CASI) developed by Holland and Gottfredson (1994) ''provides an assessment of the likelihood of job stability or change'' (p. 1). The CASI contain nine scales—job satisfaction being one of them. Holland (1996, p. 402) found that people with stable work histories (i.e., remaining in the same career) ''have high scores on the Job Satisfaction scales''. Also Alexander, Lichtenstein, Joo Oh, and Ullman (1998) surveyed 1106 nursing personnel and found that job satisfaction was negatively related to career change intent. Similarly, Smart and Peterson (1994) sampled 498 professional women and found that job satisfaction was positively correlated with career persistence.

Based on the above discussion we anticipated a meditational framework:

> *Hypothesis 5: Job performance will mediate the relationship between proactive personality and career future.*
> *Hypothesis 6: Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between proactive personality and career future.*

METHODOLOGY

Research Setting and Participants

Cross-sectional data were collected from employees who work in the private sector in Israel. The main sectors represented in our sample are technology, pharmaceuticals, telecommunication, finance and aviation. The data were collected via a self-report online survey using the snow-ball effect. Survey administration process was initiated by sending an email information letter to 25 people in 14 private sector companies in Israel, inviting them to participate in the research study. These initial respondents were asked to disperse the survey to five other employees who worked with them in their company or to other workers in the private sector. The email cover letter contained the link to the survey and a request not to answer the survey if the recipient was not working in the private sector in Israel. Because English is a second language in Israel and is actively used and spoken in the country's business community, the contact email and the survey were distributed in the English language. Only employees with access to email and the internet were able to receive and answer the survey. We collected 120 completed and usable surveys.

Prior to the data collection in Israel, a pilot study was conducted to test the reliability of the survey. The survey was distributed to 40 MBA students in a large, public university on the West Coast in the United States online via www.Zoomerang.com and in the classroom.

In the Israeli sample the respondents had an average age of 30 years. Of the 120 people surveyed, about 54% were female. About 59% of respondents had a Bachelor degree, 27% had a Masters degree, and only 3% had a post graduate degree. Of the 120 respondents, 23% were software engineers, about 17% customer service representatives, 15% sales and marketing people, about 8% human resource management people, 7% operations and logistics and about 6% in business development. Tables 1 and 2 provide a demographic and job positions profile of the respondents, respectively.

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SURVEY RESPONDENTS

Variable	N	%
Gender		
Female	64	53.33
Age		
20-29 years	44	36.66
30-39 years	62	51.66
40-49 years	3	2.5
50-59 years	7	5.83
>60 years	4	3.33
Education		
High School	13	10.83
BA	71	59.16
MA	33	27.5
Higher Degree	3	2.5
Tenure (Organization)		
< 1 year	13	10.83
1-5 years	88	73.33
6-10 years	11	9.16
11-20 years	8	6.66
>20 years	0	0
Tenure (Job Position)		
< 1 year	17	14.16
1-5 years	91	75.83
6-10 years	7	5.83
11-20 years	5	4.16
>20 years	0	0

Note: N = 120

TABLE 1 (CONTINUED)
POSITIONS WITH ORGANIZATION

Variable	N	%
Job Position		
-Software Engineer	24	20
-Manager	14	11.66
-Sales/Marketing	18	15
-Customer Service	20	16.66
-Operations / Logistics	9	7.5
-Human resources	10	8.33
-Business Development	7	5.83
-Others	18	15

Note: N = 120

Measures

Career Future

Career future was measured by using a part of the Index of Organizational Reactions (IOR) scale developed by Dunham and Smith (1979). The IOR assesses satisfaction with supervision, financial rewards, kind of work, physical conditions, amount of work, company identification, co-workers, and career future. Five items related to career future was used which were obtained from Cook, Hepworth, Wall, and Warr (1981, pp. 42-45). Several studies have used this scale reporting coefficient alpha values which ranged from .82 to .83 (Lee & Johnson, 1991; McLain, 1995; Taylor, Tracy, Renard, Harrison, & Carroll, 1995). The present study reported a Cronbach's alpha of .84.

Proactive Personality

Proactive personality was measured by using the shortened version of Bateman and Crant's (1993) 17-item Proactive Personality Scale (PPS) created by Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer, (1999). The shortened version consisted of 10 items which were selected as they had the highest average factor loadings across the three studies reported by Bateman and Crant (1993). These three studies presented evidence for the scale's reliability (Cronbach's alpha across three samples ranged from .87 to .89, and the test-retest reliability coefficient was .72 over a 3 month period) and convergent, discriminant, and criterion validity. Seibert et al (1999) mentioned that the deletion of 7 items did not result in a major effect on the reliability of the scale (17-item $\alpha = .88$; 10-item $\alpha = .86$). These items were summed to arrive at a proactive personality score. Responses were indicated on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree"), with such items as "I excel at identifying opportunities" and "No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen." Internal consistency (coefficient alpha) obtained in the current study was .89, in line with that reported by Bateman and Crant (1993).

Managerial Communication

Managerial communication was measured by using a subscale of the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) (Downs & Hazen, 1977). The CSQ is a 40-item instrument that has demonstrated a high degree of validity and reliability across a number of organizations, and in multiple contexts (Clampitt & Downs, 2004). Although several factors are identified by Downs and Hazen (1977) as indicators of overall communication satisfaction in the workplace, the focus of the present study was specifically related to the dimension that assesses employees' satisfaction with communication with their immediate supervisor or manager. Specifically this dimension is identified as personal feedback in the original instrument. It assesses how satisfied employees are with information they receive about their job, recognition of their efforts, and how well supervisors understand problems faced by employees. A 7-point Likert response format (ranging from 1 = very dissatisfied to 7 = very satisfied) was used to measure employees' satisfaction to the five items. Previous studies that have assessed the internal consistency of the individual dimensions of the CSQ have reported coefficient alphas of .80 (Pincus, 1986) and .84 (Crino & White, 1981) for the personal feedback dimension. A more recent study examining the psychometric properties of the CSQ (Gray & Laidlaw, 2004) reported a coefficient alpha of .86 for the personal feedback dimension. The reliability found in the present study was in tune with these studies as Cronbach's alpha was .90.

Job Performance

Job performance was measured by using self-report scale which included 7 items and was a subset of the 20-item scale prepared by Williams and Anderson (1991). The Williams and Anderson (1991) scale was originally validated on 127 employees working in varied organizations. Factor analysis resulted in three distinct behavior factors—job performance being one of them. Example questions include "fulfills responsibilities specified in the job description" and "meets formal performance requirements of the job." Items were summed to yield a total performance score for each employee. Reliability of the scale was in the present study was .92.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured by using a nine item scale developed by Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli and Lynch (1997). Respondents indicated the extent of their agreement with each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly agree,* 7 = *strongly disagree*). Cronbach's alpha measured for this scale was α = .94.

Intent to Remain

Employee's intent to remain with the organization was measured using a scale from Robinson (1996). This four-item scale asked employees to respond to Likert-type questions about how long the employee intends to remain with the employer, the extent to which they would prefer to work for a different employer, the extent to which they have thought about changing companies, and one binary question ("If you had your way, would you be working for this employer three years from now?"). We found a rather modest reliability with Cronbach's alpha measuring .68.

Demographic Data and Control Variables

The survey also included items inquiring about the subjects' age, gender, ethnicity, and job tenure which were used as control variables in the study. Gender was dummy coded 0 for female subjects and 1 for male subjects. (See Table 1 for a summary of the measures).

Data Analysis

Data for this study were collected anonymously. Anonymity provided benefits by potentially reducing the method bias (see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Data were analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) implemented in AMOS and hierarchical regression analyses (See, Barron & Kenny, 1986). First the model fit was tested using several confirmatory factor analyses and comparing the goodness of fit indices. SEM was used to validate the conceptual model. Both the meditational and moderational framework were tested using hierarchical regression analysis (See Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003; Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004; Holmbeck, 1997).

Tests for Model Fit

The first step in the data analysis process involved running several confirmatory factor analyses and observing the fit of the data by checking whether all the goodness-of-fit indices met the respective criteria.

The goodness of fit of the models was evaluated by using absolute and relative indices. The absolute goodness-of-fit indices which were calculated are (cf. Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) (a) the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic and (b) the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA). Although the chi-square likelihood ratio is considered the most fundamental measure of absolute model fit, it is sensitive to sample size and thus, with larger sample sizes (more than 200), can result in significant values even when small differences exist between the model and the data (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair, Anderson, Tattham, & Black, 1998). The ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom (χ^2/df) has been suggested as an alternative, with values of 2.0 or less indicative of acceptable fit (Kline, 2005). The RMSEA is a measure of model discrepancy and takes into account the error of approximation in the population (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The relative goodness-of-fit indices which were computed are (cf. Marsh, Balla, & Hau, 1996) (a) the normed fit index (NFI) (b) the comparative fit index (CFI), and (c) the incremental fit index (IFI). The CFI is a measure of fit derived from the comparison of the hypothesized model to the independence model and adjusts for sample size. CFI values of 0.90 or greater are indicative of acceptable models (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Hypothesis Testing: Mediating and Moderating Effects

In the present study the data was analyzed by using hierarchical linear regression. To test for mediation Barron and Kenny (1986) suggested a three-step procedure: 1) the mediator was regressed on the independent variable, 2) the dependent variable was regressed on the independent variable, and finally

3) the dependent variable was regressed on both the independent variable and on the mediator. However, to test for complete mediation the independent variable needs to be controlled in the third step. Hence a simple regression was performed for step one, but for steps two and three a hierarchical linear regression was employed. A formal test of the significance of mediation was provided by the Sobel test (see MacKinnon, Warsi, & Dwyer, 1995). Similarly for moderation, step 1 included only the IV-proactive personality and in step in addition to the moderator variable the interaction term was introduced. A significant interaction term provides support for the moderational framework. Following the regression analysis the slopes are calculated at low medium and high levels of the moderator variable.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 displays means, standard deviations and correlations among all the variables. Correlations among the independent and mediator variables had a median value of .19 and a maximum value of .33, with a maximum variance-inflation factor less than 2; hence, multicollinearity was not a severe problem that would preclude interpretation of the regression analyses (Neter, Wasserman, & Kutner, 1983). Proactive personality was significantly and positively related to career future ($r = .37$, $p = .01$). Given the proposed mediational framework all the four factors—managerial communication ($r = .63$, $p = .01$); job performance ($r = .31$, $p = .01$); job satisfaction ($r = .59$, $p = .01$) and intent to remain with the organization ($r = .55$, $p = .01$) were significantly correlated with career future.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND ZERO-ORDER CORRELATIONS AMONG VARIABLES

|	Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1	Career Future	3.63	.78					
2	Proactive Personality	5.57	.63	.37**				
3	Managerial Communication	5.40	1.31	.63**	.59**			
4	Job Performance	6.34	.66	.31**	.52**	.57**		
5	Intent to remain	5.19	1.30	.55**	.39**	.57**	.35**	
6	Job Satisfaction	5.41	.99	.59**	.50**	.78**	.51**	.71**

Note. N = 120
**$p < .01$.

Model Fit

The overall fit of the measurement model was assessed following the guideline suggested by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998, pp. 610-612). Separate confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) (implemented in AMOS 18) were conducted to assess the psychometric properties of the constructs and to establish a baseline model. Prior to performing the analysis, all negatively worded items in the scales of all the variables were reverse scored. For all the scales in this study the loading of one indicator was set for each factor to a fixed value of 1.0.

The goodness of fit indices for the baseline model exhibited a robust fit. The chi-square test was statistically insignificant, the chi-square degrees of freedom ratio was extremely favorable ($\chi^2 / df = .603$). The other fit indices also gave evidence of a robust fit (RMSEA = .00; NFI = .99; GFI = 99; AGFI = 96).

Managerial communication (ß = .47, $p < .001$) and intent to remain (ß = .28, $p < .001$) had a significant and robust relationship with career future and explained 45% of the variance in career future after accounting for job satisfaction, job performance and proactive personality. Proactive personality had a significant relationship with managerial communication (ß = .59, $p < .001$) and job performance (ß = .28, $p < .001$) and explained 34% and 38% of the variance respectively after accounting for the remaining variables in the model. Interestingly, proactive personality and managerial communication explained a

whopping 60% of the variance in job satisfaction after accounting for job performance and intent to remain with the organization.

FIGURE 2
BASELINE MODEL OF THE EFFECT OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY ON CAREER FUTURE WITH STANDARDIZED ESTIMATES
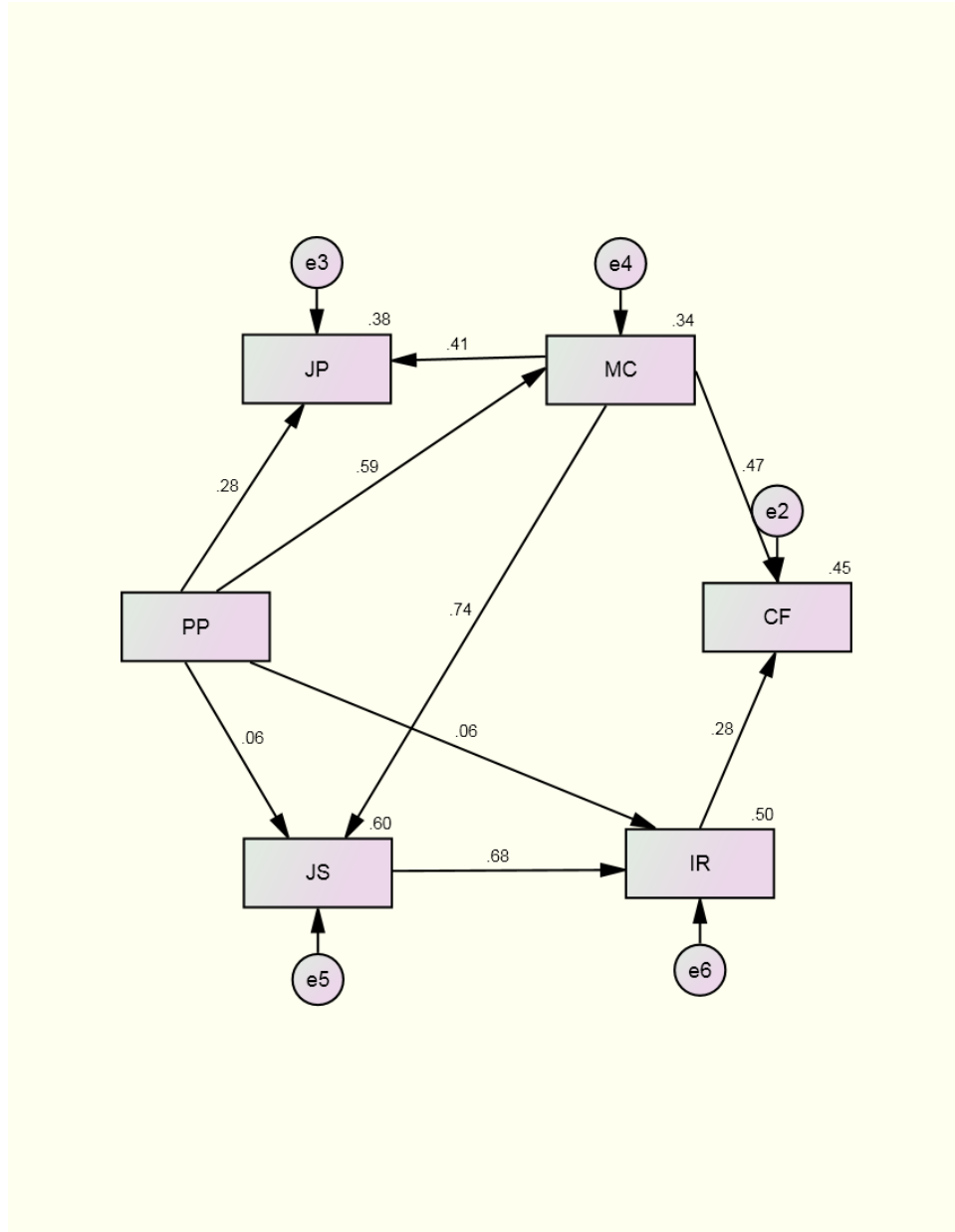
Note: PP = Proactive personality; CF = Career Future; JP = Job Performance; MC = Managerial Communication; JS = Job Satisfaction; IR = Intent to remain with the organization

Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses 1 (managerial communication); 3 (intent to remain with the organization); 5 (job performance) and 6 (job satisfaction), suggested the meditational framework in the relationship between proactive personality and career future. For testing these meditational hypotheses proactive personality

was first regressed on the mediator. This was followed by a two-step hierarchical linear regression (see Table 3, 4 & 5). In step one, proactive personality was regressed on career future, followed by step two wherein proactive personality was controlled and the mediator was introduced. Finally the Sobel's test (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2001) was calculated. Formula for the test was drawn from MacKinnon, Warsi, and Dwyer (1995). Table 3, 4, 5 summarizes the results of the regression analyses of managerial communication, intent to remain with the organization and job satisfaction respectively.

TABLE 3
SUMMARY OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSES: MEDIATION OF THE EFFECT OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY ON CAREER FUTURE BY MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION

		ß	ΔR^2	Sobel Test	
				z	p
Regression 1[a]			.35***		
	Proactive Personality	.59***			
Regression 2[b]					
	Step 1		.14***		
	Proactive Personality	.37***			
	Step 2		.28***		
	Proactive Personality	.00		5.24	.00
	Managerial communication	.63***			

[a]Dependent variable is Managerial Communication
[b]Dependent variable is Career Future
Note. N = 120. ***p<.001.

TABLE 4
SUMMARY OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSES: MEDIATION OF THE EFFECT OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY ON CAREER FUTURE BY INTENT TO REMAIN WITH THE ORGANIZATION

		ß	ΔR^2	Sobel Test	
				z	p
Regression 1[a]			.16***		
	Proactive Personality	.39***			
Regression 2[b]					
	Step 1		.14***		
	Proactive Personality	.37***			
	Step 2		.19***		
	Proactive Personality	.18*		3.63	.00
	Intent to remain	.48***			

[a]Dependent variable is Intent to remain with the organization
[b]Dependent variable is Career Future
Note. N = 120. *p<.05, ***p<.001.

TABLE 5
SUMMARY OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSES: MEDIATION OF THE EFFECT
OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY ON CAREER FUTURE BY JOB SATISFACTION

		ß	ΔR^2	Sobel Test z	p
Regression 1[a]			.25***		
	Proactive Personality	.50***			
Regression 2[b]					
	Step 1		.14***		
	Proactive Personality	.37***			
	Step 2		.22***		
	Proactive Personality	.10		4.47	.00
	Job Satisfaction	.55***			

[a]Dependent variable is Job Satisfaction
[b]Dependent variable is Career Future
Note. $N = 120$. ***$p<.001$.

As shown in Table 3, the regression coefficient for managerial communication was significant in contributing to career future when proactive personality was controlled indicating the mediating role of managerial communication (ß = .63, $p = .001$; $R^2\Delta = .28$, $p = .00$). In step 2 proactive personality was insignificant thereby indicating that managerial communication *completely mediated* the relationship between proactive personality and career future. The Sobel test revealed significant evidence for meditational role of managerial communication, $z = 5.24$, $p = .00$.

Similarly for hypotheses 3 and 6 significant evidence (as seen in Table 4 & 5 respectively) was found for the mediating role of intent to remain with the organization (ß = .48, $p = .001$; $R^2\Delta = .19$, $p = .00$) and job satisfaction (ß = .55, $p = .001$; $R^2\Delta = .22$, $p = .00$). In case of intent to remain the statistical significance of proactive personality reduced in step 2, confirming partial mediation. However, in case of job satisfaction, proactive personality was insignificant in step 2 indicating complete mediation. Sobel test was calculated and provided further evidence for the meditational role of intent to remain ($z = 3.63$, $p = .04$); and job satisfaction ($z = 4.47$, $p = .000$).

Hypothesis 5 which proposed the meditational role of job performance was not significant when proactive personality was introduced in the second step.

The regression coefficient for the interaction term between proactive personality/managerial communication and proactive personality/intent to remain was insignificant and hence hypotheses 2 and 4 respectively were not supported.

DISCUSSION

The present study aimed at empirically testing a conceptual model and delineating the process/ mechanism through which proactive personality affects career future through managerial communication, job performance, job satisfaction and intent to remain with the organization. Managerial communication and intent to remain had a robust relationship with career future and explained 45% of the variance. Intent to remain with the organization partially mediated while managerial communication and job satisfaction completely mediated the relationship between proactive personality/career future. This study contributes to both the fields of proactive personality and careers and the results are useful for both academicians as well as practitioners.

Practical Implications

The above findings have several practical implications, especially from an applied perspective this type of research is important as it gives more insight on how organizations can recognize and leverage from those employees exhibiting proactive personality. There is hardly any doubt that proactive people are an asset to the company, however it is up to the company to ensure that they do not lose such a valuable asset. It is important for proactive employees to be convinced that their career has a future in the company. There is a possibility that in the event of job insecurity and less scope for success proactive personality employees might seek greener pastures. Thus it is of vital importance that employers should make sure that their proactive employees are assured that they will progress in their career within the organization. The results of this study have specifically provided strong evidence for the importance of managerial communication and job satisfaction. It is therefore vital that organizations provided employees with as much information about the change and encourage a two way communication. Additionally, they should be provided with performance feedback and discuss their job satisfaction to assure they are satisfied with their job and their work performance. Last but not the least, an interesting finding of this study was that if employees intend to remain with the company they will work towards building a career in the same company. It would greatly help if such employees received career counseling so that they could achieve their career goals and be able to take advantage of the opportunities within the company.

Limitations of the Study

Data for this study was collected anonymously. Although limiting any inference of causality among the study variables, protecting respondents' anonymity provided benefits by potentially reducing the method bias (see P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & N. P. Podsakoff, 2003).

Another limitation was related to common method variance as the data was collected in one sitting—the survey included both the criterion and the predictor variables. P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and N. P. Podsakoff (2003) mentioned that one of the most common variables assumed to cause common method variance is the tendency for participants to respond in a socially desirable manner. They argue that respondents may have less evaluation apprehension and therefore are less likely to edit their responses to be more socially desirable when anonymity is assured. In the present study the responses were completely anonymous thereby protecting the respondent's identity. Although this does not completely eradicate the problem of common method bias but it does alleviate it. This is a particularly important aspect as different organizations have varied levels of distrust and uncertainty (Buono & Bowditch, 1989), which may lead to biased responses if participants believe their identity, could be revealed to management. This, in turn, may result in a less of internal validity if respondents are hesitant to provide honest responses to the surrey questions for fear of repercussion (Green & Feild, 1976).

Data was collected using the snow-ball method and hence it was difficult to avoid impending confounding factors, such as type of industry, resources, and markets (Pritchard et al, 1988; Mukherjee, Lapre', & Wassenhove, 1998).

In this study no support was found for moderator framework of managerial communication and intent to remain with the organization. One of the possible reasons could be due to the fact that data for this study were collected via self-report measures to assess both the predictors and outcome variables thereby raising concerns about common method variance (Spector, 2006). This poses a problem especially while detecting interactions as inflated correlations between the independent and the dependent variables reduce power to detect such interactions (Evans, 1985; Schmitt, 1994). Future studies could test these moderators by eliminating this limitation.

Further, the measure of intent to remain with the organization had disappointingly low reliability (α =.68) in this study, suggesting that an alternative measure should be used in future research.

Future Research

Following are some ideas for future research. Firstly careers may be subjective—the individual's internal apprehension and evaluation of his or her career, across any dimensions that are important to that

individual; or objective—individual's external perspective that describe more or less tangible indicators of the individual's career situation (Van Maanen, 1977, p. 9). In the present study we did not take into consideration this aspect of career, hence future research could replicate this study by measuring career future both subjectively and objectively.

A natural extension of this study is to replicate it in the U.S. and conduct a cross-cultural study between the US and the Israeli sample. The study could also be replicated by comparing data across cultures such as Japan. Japanese employees exhibit higher work centrality, and give greater importance to job security and stability than do employees in the U.S. (England & Misumi 1986; Lundberg & Peterson 1994).

Further it would be interesting to observe how the results of this study vary across demographic variables especially age. Although in the present study we collected data for age we hardly had any variation in the age as a major portion of the respondents were either above 40 or 50 years. Age plays an important role especially in today's dynamic and ever-changing environment with older workers being more resistant to changes in job. They tend to worry that they may have to start afresh especially if there is no significant value for their job experience of past working skills (Campbell & Cellini 1981; Hansson et al. 1997). Another important demographic variable is workforce diversity as careers have changed with increased workforce diversity (England & Farkas 1986; England, Reid, & Kilbourne 1996; Johnston & Packer 1987).

Crant (2000) aptly states the importance of proactive personality which can be rightly applied to an organization undergoing change—as change relates to dynamism and uncertainty: "As work becomes more dynamic and decentralized, proactive behavior and initiative become even more critical determinants of organizational success" (p. 435). This study provides an initial attempt to delineate the mechanism by which proactive personality affects career through certain job–related outcomes. The "bottom line" is to send across a message to organizations to value one of their most important assets—its proactive employees especially in a competitive and ever changing world where employees undoubtedly form the core competency of the company.

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